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ABSTRACT

Teaching social routines to behavior-disordered children is addressed, with an emphasis on determining and maintaining the critical effect of a behavior and on providing contextual instruction. Assessment of behavioral problems in functional terms is discussed and procedures for assessing social functions and social skills are analyzed. The instructional process outlined is dependent on determination of the function, selection of the appropriate setting, and development of a specific instructional plan (with consideration of acceptable behaviors, curricula, levels of support, companion skills, success criteria, and data selection and collection). Among appended materials is a sample social skills environmental inventory measuring 12 functions, including following rules/regulations, attending to relevant cues, indicating preference, and solving problems. (CL)

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Teaching Social Routines to Behaviorally Disordered Youth

by Richard S. Neel

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Introduction

The goals of educational interventions for children with behavior disorders are to replace socially unacceptable patterns of behavior and increase the number and types of acceptable behavior patterns a child has in his or her repertoire. A number of strategies can be used to accomplish these ends. Behaviorally disordered children are labeled such because they use behavior patterns that are unacceptable to others. These patterns, or routines, can be viewed by others as disordered, disturbed, neurotic or psychotic. Traditionally, the goal of instruction or therapy was to eliminate those disordered behaviors. This focus on elimination has left the area of replacement virtually ignored. Only recently has teaching prosocial behaviors emerged as a major alternative.

This monograph is a collection of strategies that focus on the development of behaviors that enable a child to function more effectively in his or her environment. Teaching social routines is one of those approaches. It differs from other approaches in three ways. First, teaching social routines focuses on the function of critical effect of behaviors. Second, instructional targets and contexts come from the child's current environments. The third difference is a more fundamental one. This technique is untried. Most of the components have empirical evidence to support them, but the system as a whole is experimental. This chapter provides the rationale for using social routines and a detailed description of how to use the system. It is hoped that as you and others use the system, more refinements will be made. I offer this program because I believe that further refinements of current systems will not greatly alter the depressing educational outcomes they achieve. A fundamentally different approach must be developed.

The notion of teaching social routines to behaviorally disordered youth is a relatively new one. It comes from work with severely handicapped youth. The basic idea of the program is that any social skill must be taught so that it is currently successful for the user, and in a manner that closely resembles the actual situations or settings where the skill is likely to be required. This approach to educating behaviorally disordered youth shifts the focus of intervention from teaching "good behavior" to teaching effective and reliable behavior. Instructional goals are determined by analyzing the child's home, community and school environments, and determining which results are being produced; that is, what the child gains or values from the behavior. An instructional strategy is designed that will enable the child to continue to realize that same result during instruction using a more acceptable set of behaviors. This strategy of determining and maintaining the critical effect (White, 1980) of a behavior and the reliance on contextual instruction is the basis for all educational planning. An explanation of both of these concepts, along with a rationale for why they are needed follows.

Critical Effects

Every chain of behaviors produces an effect. We fix a meal because we want to be full. We walk because we want to get somewhere. We communicate to be heard and understood. Each of these complex behavior chains is developed and refined as we grow up in order to produce the effects we desire. As long as a chain produces the desired result, it will be used. If we can learn a more efficient way to reach the same result, we will use it.

As we mature, we develop a variety of patterns or chains to produce results that are important to us. For example, we develop several different ways to "get full." We can tell someone to bring us food, go to the refrigerator and get it ourself, go to a restaurant, go to the market, steal it from a store, panhandle it on the street corner, or look in garbage cans. Each of these routines may work. Obviously, some are more desirable than others, but if the need is great enough, and the obvious avenues to getting full are blocked or unsuccessful, the less desirable ways will be used. These less desirable ways are what others call behavior disorders.

Disordered behaviors, then, are conceived of as successful chains or routines of unacceptable behaviors. The success or failure of a routine does not depend on its acceptance by others, but its ability to produce a desired result. The effects they produce are the same effects that all of us desire to produce (attention, reward, satisfaction, companionship). The main difference is that the behaviors a child chooses

It is not seeking attention that gets a child labeled disordered, it is how and when they seek it that causes the problem.

Removing a child from the natural setting is a mistake. When you place a child in an isolated classroom, you are altering the problem significantly.

to use are not desired or accepted by the people in that child's environment. Take for example the desired effect of getting attention. Many behaviorally disordered children have labels of "needs too much attention" or "fights and argues to gain attention." Traditional teaching approaches try to reduce this attention-getting behavior and increase academic skills. The consensus is that needing attention is bad, or if not bad, then, needing it "that much" surely is. Yet we all need attention and have developed a wide range of behaviors to get it when we feel we need it. We dress and talk certain ways, memorize jokes, read *Time* and *Newsweek*, listen to the radio so we can tell anyone the chance of rain and the temperature in Miami. We develop expertise in cooking, sewing, fishing, auto mechanics, plumbing, stamp collecting, bridge and coupon collecting so we can share them with others. All of us have even developed a refined system of embellishing the facts to make a good story. It is not seeking attention that gets a child labeled disordered, it is how and when they seek it that causes the problem.

When changing a problem routine, it is necessary to teach another routine that will accomplish the same desired effect. Teaching social routines provides a system to help you identify the critical effect that each problem behavior is producing for the child (e.g. protesting, contacting others, having fun, getting attention, getting someone to do something), and then teaches the child a set of alternate, more acceptable routines that will produce the same or a similar result. Every activity and skill that needs to be taught can and should be integrated into a routine leading to a critical effect for the child. To do otherwise is to invite more problems in motivation, maintenance and generalization.

Form and Function

As stated earlier, behavior problems produce an effect for a child. The problem behavior is called form. The effect it produces is called function. Many different forms can be used to produce the same effect. Also, a particular behavior (form) may have more than one purpose (function). Since the purpose may vary, the desired replacement behaviors may also vary. For example, truancy could be an escape behavior, an attention-seeking device, or the result of competing reinforcers. Each of these functions should be remediated differently. A teacher would decide which function the truancy was producing, and then replace it with another more desirable routine that would achieve the same ends. Without knowledge of the purpose of the routine, it is unlikely that an adequate replacement will be taught.

A curriculum that uses critical effects assesses the results desired by the child, the results expected in his or her community, and the particular behaviors the child currently uses to produce those effects. The child is then taught how to achieve the same results in the environment using more desirable forms. The child's instructional program is truly individualized.

Contextual Instruction

Another component of the social routine teaching format is reliance on environmental contexts. Children should be taught new behaviors where the problem behavior occurs (Walker, 1981). To remove a child from the natural setting is a mistake. A cursory look at the generalization data of behavioral programs shows the fallacy of educating in isolated, contrived settings (Stokes and Baer, 1977). First, we all have seen the teaching of "bus riding" to little children in a pre-school class. The chairs are lined up in rows of twos, there is a cardboard picture of the bus tied to the outside row, the bus driver is a warm, friendly, cooperative and patient person, and the children are taught to sing "The Wheels on the Bus Go Round, Round, Round." Then the child tries to ride the real bus with his or her mother. The schedule is confusing, the mother is in a hurry and slightly intimidated by the ride, the child cannot find a seat for two, the driver is in a hurry, and the mother doesn't have the right change. What are the chances that this child has learned the necessary social forms at school? There are several reasons why this lack of generalization occurs.

First, deviant behaviors are thought of as consistent entities. When a child hits others, each hit is considered equivalent to any other hit. Frequency of response becomes the basis of most interventions. Unfortunately, most overt behaviors are not equivalent. They occur in a particular context, and this context is an integral part of the behavior. When you remove a child from the problem situation and put him or her

in an isolated classroom, you are altering the problem significantly. The changes you produce in the controlled setting are not predictive of behaviors when the control is removed. Failure to recognize the role context plays in defining a problem will continue to produce changes that will not generalize.

To be socially successful, a child has to know not only what to do, but also when and when not to do it. The timing of social responses depends on the child's ability to read the situation. The child must be able to accurately determine the desired responses from the natural cues that exist in the situation. Often these cues are vague and change rapidly in subtle ways. Discriminations learned in a classroom or isolated setting may not be the same ones required in a less formal social setting. Perceived growth on the part of the child is often an illusion that quickly disappears outside the school setting or after instruction has stopped. It is impossible to teach a child the correct behaviors without the presence of the natural cues and consequences. Any other effort is a simulation at best, and usually fails to produce the desired routines. How we teach children to play games is a good example. Often when we decide a child doesn't play well with others, we try to teach him or her how to play recess games. We teach the rules, provide some motor skill training, and then add a heavy amount of coercion of the other children. Everyone gives Johnny a turn, doesn't laugh at his mistakes, and, of course, follows all the rules according to Hoyle. Then recess is over, and the kids are playing at a park or after school. What happens? The rules go out the window, since every kid knows that those who are biggest or own the ball always set the rules. Johnny is either left out, harangued for every mistake, or worse yet, teased and ridiculed for his lack of skills and inability to handle teasing. Again, the wrong forms were taught in the wrong place.

Another reason generalization fails to occur is that we often engineer the school environment so that the problem behavior does not occur. We assess the child extensively, design academic work at the child's level, give prompt and frequent feedback, add liberal amounts of reward and attention, give a clear set of expectations and instructions and then notice that the problem behaviors seem to reduce. Such reductions are viewed as growth on the part of the child; but are they? It is much more likely that the change in behaviors occurs because of the artificial changes in the environment. Unfortunately the created environment and the stimuli present in that environment do not occur anywhere else. We create a Disneyland where children who are behavior disordered can play. We do not give them the opportunity to learn new behaviors in the presence of the stimuli that caused them problems in the first place (e.g. vague clues, unreasonable demands, unclear instructions, competing rewards). These children often fail to develop adequate strategies because they had no opportunity to practice them in actual situations.

Teaching social routines is designed to solve these problems. It focuses on the particular function a child is trying to produce rather than on the form the child is using. Each behavior is taught in natural contexts. Several different routines are taught so that a child will have many routines to use to achieve a particular critical effect. Since there is an immediate effect for the child, he or she exerts more control over the environment and is more motivated to learn the tasks required. Also, the natural cues and consequences that will control and maintain a skill sequence are learned during instruction, so additional generalization training is minimized. Emphasis is on determining which effects a particular child will need, and then designing an individualized program to meet those needs. Teaching in context removes many of the problems that occur when other teaching techniques are used. A detailed description of each step of the process follows. As more people use this system, additional data will be collected. Refinements will be made in the system based on the data.

Assessing Behavioral Problems in Functional Terms

Assessing behavioral problems in functional terms is different than traditional assessments familiar to most of us. First, functional assessments begin by analyzing which social functions a child uses. Next, they determine which particular form a child is using to produce the effect of each function, and what effects it

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We need to determine which effect the child hopes to produce, then teach another more acceptable behavior to produce the same result. Describe the functionality of a behavior from the perspective of the child.

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has on others. Particular attention is given to how many forms the child uses, and how familiar the child is with the unwritten rules of when and how to use them. Finally, the environments where the child uses the form are analyzed. This environmental analysis determines where, when and with whom the child has a problem, and also what alternate behaviors could be used to produce the same or similar effects in that environment.

Social Functions

Social functions are the critical effects that result from engaging in social behaviors. There is no extensive or definitive list of social functions in the literature. Literature on normal development, social competence and handicapped children all provide some evidence on what the necessary social functions might be. From studies of children's communication patterns, we can find different pragmatic functions required to function adequately in the world (Halliday, 1975; Bates, 1976;). Piaget (1946) and others suggest the various activities and stages that children progress through as they develop social competencies. Social curricula developed by Stephens (1982), Goldstein (1980), Hazel (1979), Walker (1982) and others suggest the specific strategies that contribute to successful social interactions. Finally, Voeltz (1980), Brown (1979) and Belamy and Wilcox (1982) have identified some of the critical age-appropriate skills required for minimal participation in society. None of these sources, however, provides a list of functions that could be used to design an effective measure of social functions.

The absence of a definitive list of functions need not, however, prevent us from developing an assessment process. To be effective, the assessment system must measure which functions each child uses, the level of performance within each function, the environments in which the child interacts, and the set of particular forms that are preferred by others in the child's environment. Traditional assessments focus on a series of comprehensive listings that approximate the forms used by normal children. The assessment process is one of determining which level of form the child used, and then teaching the child the next one in the developmental sequence. The problem with this approach is that any one form can represent more than one social function, and that any social effect can be produced by more than one form. Traditional assessment produces curriculum decisions based on developmental forms. Children with behavior problems are frequently taught "the curriculum" regardless of their particular needs. The lessons taught become the end rather than the means. All children are taught to "greet," "negotiate," or "understand themselves" in isolated settings without regard to the effects that knowing these skills has on the child's current social interactions.

The functional assessment system helps the teacher derive instructional targets from each child's current environments. Its goals are to determine the social functioning of each child and then analyze the environments the child accesses. By focusing on the functions rather than the forms, a more individualized program is developed. Each child's desired effects are considered before a particular set of forms is chosen. The environment unique to each child is included in the decision making process. Since it is essential that the critical effect be realized *during* instruction, only forms that will be effective in the child's environment are targeted for instruction.

Social Skills Environmental Inventory

The Social Skills Environmental Inventory is an assessment device that allows the child, his or her parents, and the teacher to decide on the particular social goals most important to the child. The inventory screens each major social function area, then asks parents and teachers to rate the overall functioning of the child in each area. From this information, the three most important areas are selected and they become the IEP goals for that child. Once the priority areas are determined and a series of goals have been written, an in-depth analysis of each problem area is conducted so that a comprehensive instructional plan can be drawn.

The Social Skills Environmental Inventory (*Appendix A*) contains a description of each of the social functions used in the assessment process. A series of examples of each function with a rating score for each example as well as an overall rating of the child's ability to use each function is included. A summary of the various functions and examples is shown in *Table 1*. This form is used to determine how well the child does in each area. This list is not necessarily exhaustive, and other functions that you feel are important to the child or his or her parents should also be considered. After each function is evaluated, the three major problem functions are identified. Each of these functions is then analyzed using the Social Skills Environmental Analysis Form.

Table 1

Social Function

Function	Description	Example Skills
1. Initiate/Gain entry	Behavior that allows a person to gain access to interaction: either to initiate an interaction, to begin an event/exchange, or to enter one already underway.	1. Finding someone to talk to 2. Greeting others 3. Offering assistance 4. Asking for help 5. Asking for permission 6. Asking for some thing or action 7. Starting a conversation 8. Joining in 9. Giving instructions
2. Maintain Interaction	Behavior that allows the interaction, activity and/or event to continue.	1. Answering 2. Helping others 3. Organizing play 4. Inviting others 5. Playing informally 6. Conversing 7. Listening 8. Convincing others 9. Responding to persuasion
3. Follow Rules/Regulations	Adhere to minimal "rules" of an activity or context, follow routines of given situation; generally implies serial order and/or branching to alternative series to select appropriate response.	1. Listening to teacher 2. Following teacher's verbal directions 3. Reading and following written directions 4. Following school, community rules 5. Accepting consequences 6. Following peer directions 7. Following rules when authority is absent 8. Avoiding trouble

Table 1, cont.

4. Reinforce Others/Display Affection	Provide others with feedback which is rewarding to them.	1. Smiling 2. Saying thank you 3. Saying something nice about what someone did 4. Saying something nice about how someone looks 5. Giving a general compliment 6. Receiving a compliment 7. Understanding the feelings of others 8. Consoling others when they have made a mistake or lost 9. Expressing satisfaction 10. Receiving affection
5. Consequate Others/Punish/Extinguish	Provide others with feedback which indicates that their response was inappropriate, unpleasant, etc., and that you want them to stop that behavior.	1. Telling someone that you don't want to do something 2. Telling someone that you are mad without hurting them 3. Telling someone what you don't like (constructive criticism) 4. Ignoring a tease or other verbal remark 5. Ignoring or leaving when someone tries to hurt you (if you can) 6. Exploring the other person's point of view and expressing differences as you see them 7. Suggesting an alternate action the other person could take to make you less angry
6. Attend to Relevant Cues	Behaviors which accompany any social skills, are critical to the particular situation, and are included in any appropriate response.	1. Good grooming 2. Body posturing 3. Eye contact 4. Using right voice 5. Taking turns 6. Touching the right way

Table 1, cont.

7. Provide Info:mation/Describe	Behavior which shares information, feelings, etc., with others.	1. Answering questions 2. Showing something 3. Introducing yourself 4. Expressing an interest in the surroundings 5. Introducing other people 6. Telling about something not shared with listener 7. Expressing feelings
8. Indicate Preference	Behavior which allows person to make a choice/decision from among alternatives available or presented by others.	1. Stating your preference 2. Choosing an alternative 3. Setting a goal 4. Arranging problems by importance 5. Participating in a decision 6. Deciding when given a choice 7. Determining the value before deciding to do something 8. Resisting peer pressure 9. Negotiating 10. Standing up for yourself and others 11. Convincing others
9. Cope with Negative Situations	Behavior to generate and implement alternative strategies to continue an interaction or complete a task or select an alternative interaction when presented with a negative situation or consequence.	1. Dealing with interruptions 2. Finding an alternate activity when permission has been denied 3. Developing acceptable activities when bored 4. Seeking help when something goes wrong 5. Responding to embarrassment 6. Generating alternatives when excluded or left out 7. Dealing with fearful situations or events 8. Interpreting and evaluating contradictory messages
10. Dealing with Anger	Behavior that receives, deflects and resolves angry situations without harming either the receiver or sender.	1. Receiving a complaint 2. Answering a complaint 3. Receiving an accusation 4. Apologizing 5. Defusing a hostile situation 6. Responding to an attack or fight

Table 1, cont.

11. Leave—Take Exit	Behavior to terminate or withdraw from an interaction situation, cease participation in an activity when appropriate, desired, etc.	1. Moving to next activity at the end of a task 2. Leaving at the end of a positive social interaction 3. Leaving when an interaction/task is not complete 4. Leaving when an interaction/task is negative
12. Problem Solving	Behavior that is used to generate, evaluate and implement solutions to impasses or obstructions to goals.	1. Gathering information 2. Generating trial alternatives 3. Evaluating trial alternatives 4. Implementing (test) alternatives 5. Re-evaluating and modifying alternatives 6. Planning long-term goals 7. Accepting abilities and limitations

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The author would like to acknowledge Dr. Luanna Voltz whose work led to the development of these categories.

Table 2

Social Skills Environmental Analysis Form

List the three major problem functions circled on the Social Skills Environmental Inventory.

Problem 1	Problem 2	Problem 3

I. What is the presenting problem behavior (form)? (Be specific)

Problem 1	Problem 2	Problem 3
a. _____	a. _____	a. _____
b. _____	b. _____	b. _____
c. _____	c. _____	c. _____

II. Assumed function: What effect do you think the behavior is producing?

Problem 1	Problem 2	Problem 3
a. _____	a. _____	a. _____
b. _____	b. _____	b. _____
c. _____	c. _____	c. _____

In what environments does the problem exist? (You may check more than one.)

	Problem 1						Problem 2						Problem 3					
	Almost Never	Some of the Time		Most of the Time		Unsure	Almost Never	Some of the Time		Most of the Time		Unsure	Almost Never	Some of the Time		Most of the Time		Unsure
A. Home																		
1. House	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Neighborhood or yard	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
B. School																		
1. Classroom	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Recess or break	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Halls, walks, etc.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Gym, assemblies, etc.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Bus	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6

Table 2, cont.

	Problem 1						Problem 2						Problem 3					
C. Community	Almost Never	Some of the Time		Most of the Time		Unsure	Almost Never	Some of the Time		Most of the Time		Unsure	Almost Never	Some of the Time		Most of the Time		Unsure
1. Shops, grocery store, etc.																		
2. Parks, public places, etc.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Car, bus, etc.																		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
III. With Whom?																		
A. Alone	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
B. Mom	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
C. Dad	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
D. Brother or sister	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
E. Peers	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
F. Teachers	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
G. Other adults (known)	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
H. Other adults (unknown)	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6

IV. When (time of day)

V. Special circumstances (specific task, history, external event, etc.):

VI. What behaviors (forms) do you want the child to use to produce the same effect? (select a minimum of 3) alternatives):

Problem 1	Problem 2	Problem 3
a. _____	a. _____	a. _____
b. _____	b. _____	b. _____
c. _____	c. _____	c. _____

VII. What comparison skills are needed?

Problem 1	Problem 2	Problem 3
a. _____	a. _____	a. _____
b. _____	b. _____	b. _____
c. _____	c. _____	c. _____

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Social Skills Analysis Form

The Social Skills Environmental Analysis Form (*Table 2*) includes several components. Each component is necessary to enable you to correctly select the instructional targets that will enhance a child's social functioning in environments that really matter. The components are discussed below. Although they are separated here for clarity, in actual practice they are treated as a whole.

Presenting problem (form). Most all behavior problems are described to others as a form. A parent will tell you that his child steals, another teacher will say that the child is out of his or her seat, or you will notice that Johnny always hits other kids. This is the beginning point for any assessment. Often a child will use more than one form to reach the same goal. Many of these forms will be acceptable, most will not. List as many of these behaviors as you can. Try to place them in some sort of hierarchial order. This will aid you in planning. For example, a child may escape an assignment by looking out the window, bringing up another subject, talking to another child, arguing with you as to the merits of the work, taunting another child, whining, saying that they are tired, sick or bored, picking a fight with you, throwing a temper tantrum, etc. (The list could go on and on. I am always amazed with the creativity of the little dears.) Often, the child will begin at a relatively low level, and only resort to the major disruptions if the little ones don't work. It is very helpful if you can both describe the problem behaviors that the child uses and place them in levels or categories. As much as possible, problems should be described in behavioral terms. A clear description of what a child does is more useful for programming than a judgment about what he or she does. For example, "Johnny failed to complete three of the last four homework assignments," is much preferrable to "Johnny is lazy."

Assumed function. With the second component of the functional assessment, assumed function, you try to determine what effect the child is producing with the problem behavior. Since this is a guess, you are encouraged to guess more than one purpose, and then put them in the order of most likely first. This is the most important part of the analysis. Without a guess of what effect the child desires, you will be hampered in choosing a replacement behavior. For a child to learn a routine in context and then use that routine to replace problem behaviors, the child must be able to produce the same or a very similar result with the new behavior. It is essential that you take the time to try and determine which effect or set of effects the child is producing with the problem behavior. Many times you will guess more than one function. It is not too important whether or not your initial guess is correct. Your data will tell you if you were right. It is only important that you do guess. Without some notion of the effect the child is trying to produce, there will be much less likelihood of teaching him or her a social skill that can be used in appropriate places. One word of caution: Often, the effect the child is producing is not one that we desire in the situation where it is occurring. For example, children may be getting our attention when they should be doing math, or they may be baiting us into a conflict to escape a dreaded part of the day, when we think they should learn to handle their fears. Ultimately, we want each child to learn when to do math and how to handle fear, but for the present, we need to determine which effect the *child* hopes to produce by using the problem behavior, and then teach another more acceptable behavior to produce the *same* result. Only after children have learned to gain attention (or escape a dreaded situation) by using a socially acceptable form will they learn to deal with that need until their math is done. To many of us, an unacceptable social behavior is an interruption that should be stopped. We systematicaly engineer the environment to prevent it from occurring. Then, when faced with a similar situation where he or she needs attention or is afraid, the child is no more able to deal with it than the first time. When they revert back to their problem behavior, we call it a relapse and tighten our controls. It is hard for all of us to trust that problem behaviors will reduce when other, more acceptable forms are shown effective. We are frequently too impatient and too afraid of possible disruptions. When trying to determine which function is being sought, be sure to guard against the temptation to describe the functions you as the teacher want to produce. You always need to describe the functionality of a behavior from the perspective of the child.

Context. The third element of the assessment process is context. Behaviors occur in context. It is essential that you consider the context of problem behaviors before designing an intervention. If Johnny fails to do his homework when Dad is not home, that may be different from not doing homework when Dad

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Most good behavior is ignored. It does little good to teach a child how to gain attention correctly if no one in the child's environment will attend to it readily.

Problem behavior is very successful. It is almost always reinforced. To replace this behavior, we have to teach the child a set of other behaviors to accomplish the same ends.

is home. Complaining about school or whining when given a math worksheet may be different from complaining about school when a best friend has just moved. Far too often, we focus only on the presenting problem (form) and assume that each occurrence is the same. We assume that all hitting is the same. It may not be.

When analyzing context, you should note where, with whom, and under what circumstances the behavior occurs. You should also note differences between these variables. Often the clue to what to teach can be found where the behavior does not occur. We are all familiar with the teacher's lounge discussions about a particular child. Ronald Rigid is having no end of trouble with Johnny. Marge Mild, however, thinks Johnny is the star pupil. What's the difference? Ronald could find many clues on how to change his approach to Johnny just by watching Marge. Differences in subject matter, difficulty level, time of day, peers, previous performances and upcoming events can also signal what changes should be made. Obviously, careful analysis of the behavioral context is essential.

Often a child's behavior will generalize to all environments. Sometimes however, it will be limited to a particular place. This is important to know. Also, it is important to notice how many different environments a child is using. If a child only plays at school with the teacher and is home alone for the rest of the day, then one of the main objectives must be to increase the number of environments the child accesses.

As much as possible, try to identify environments specifically. "While doing a group art project at the rear of the classroom" is much more useful than "in the classroom." All this information can be found in the inventory.

Replacement forms. These are the set of forms you will teach to replace the problem behavior, yet still achieve the same results for the child. Replacement forms must have two characteristics. First and foremost, they must be effective for the child as they are taught. Second, they must be acceptable to significant others in the child's environment. When assessing the child's environment, it is necessary to determine what types of forms would be effective, and in how many environments these forms could be used. Without this information, we could teach a child a form that would work well in school, but never transfer to other situations.

It is important that you choose more than one replacement behavior. Most good behavior is ignored. It is usually necessary for us to use more than one form to produce a desired result. We should not be teaching children one specific form to use. This produces children who have only one new way to act. If this way fails, then they will resort to the old problem behaviors. If they have several new ways to try, they are more likely not to get into trouble. Also, try to choose behaviors the child can easily do that will be readily reinforced in the natural environment. It does little good to teach a child how to do something to gain attention if no one in the child's environment will attend to it readily.

Companion skills required. Most social skills accompany other activities. It is essential that a child be proficient in the companion skills as well as the social ones. Many times children will be rejected because they are poor at games or don't know some fact or idea. You must assess the child's ability to do the things that peers do in various settings the child accesses. If the favorite game after school is football, then it is important that the child you are working with be both socially appropriate and know how to play the game. The companion skills you target must be the ones likely to be required in the child's environment. It will do little good to teach a child to play checkers or chess if all his or her potential friends are playing Pac-Man. Attending to companion skills gives you two parallel teaching targets for each lesson. First, you must program for the particular social skill the child will need, and then you must begin to teach the child any companion skills required. Fortunately, many companion skills can be used to teach the same social skill, so the amount of social skill instruction will far outweigh the teaching of companion skills.

The assessment system produces three products: the functional areas most important for the child to learn, the forms selected to be taught, and the teaching context. Now you are ready to begin instruction.

The Instructional Process

The teaching social routines curriculum process is based on three assumptions. First, instruction should be in natural routines that lead to a desired critical effect for the child at the time of instruction. Second, instruction should take place in natural contexts whenever possible. Finally, a sufficient amount of assistance needs to be given to a child to ensure a high probability of success throughout instruction. To implement such a curriculum you need to decide which function you are going to train, select an appropriate setting for the instruction, develop a specific instructional plan, and then marshal the resources necessary to carry out the instruction.

Determining the Function

The social skills environmental inventory will provide you with the three problem social functions for each child. Since each class will have more than one child, and possibly more than one program for each child, you will not be able to instruct every function for every child at the same time. You must decide which function to teach first. This decision should always be made in consultation with the parents. Select functions that can be used in multiple environments over those which can be used in only one environment. Longitudinal skills are superior to short-term ones. It is also a good idea to focus on crisis functions first so you can maintain the child in the educational setting. No hard and fast rule can be given as to what to teach first, but considering these points will aid you in your decision.

Selecting the Setting

After you have selected the function you want to train, you need to select an instructional setting in which the child is likely to be able to produce the desired effect. For example, to teach a child to display affection, select settings where these displays are considered appropriate and are likely to be returned. More than one setting would be appropriate; the one you choose will depend on several things.

First, determine who is to do the instructing. Far too often, it is assumed that only the teacher or the teaching assistant can teach social skills. Nothing could be further from the truth. As Strain (1982) points out, social skills are best learned from peers and others naturally in the environment. Lovitt, Lovitt, Easton and Kirkwood (1973) have shown that even difficult situations can be effectively handled by a fellow student. It is important that you step back from the situation and decide who best can provide the necessary instruction, and recruit that person. The teacher's role becomes one of case management rather than instruction in many cases. See McDonald and McDonald (1973) for examples of how to arrange instruction in various settings using personnel other than the teacher.

Another element of the setting that needs to be analyzed is natural cues and consequences. It is important to determine which cues in the setting are likely to call for the desired behavior. For example, if you want to teach a child to deliver positive feedback appropriately, you must help the child determine when and where to do so. A good time to compliment a child is after he or she does something well. It is not a good idea to deliver a compliment following an error, or when two people are talking about something else. Analyzing the setting to determine the critical cues helps you design an instructional program. These natural cues need to be taught as part of the instructional package.

A final area to consider when selecting the setting is the level of support each setting provides. In each setting, there are many situations in which you can engineer the level of social competence required. Each of these situations has specific requirements that can be controlled so that a child has a high probability of success. For example, you can send a child to an office to get a paper cutter or you can send the child out in the school yard to find something to do. Each of these settings has different required skills and different physical supports. The office has a confined space with definite prompts for where to go and what to do. The school yard, on the other hand, is wide open, presents a variety of choices, and has limited numbers of

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Success in the natural world gives the child more control over his or her environment, and reduces the likelihood that problem behavior will recur.

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prompts as to where to go. For some children, the office will be safer and easier to approach. For others, the school yard is the preferred setting because they will be able to wander without being called on to interact. When designing an instructional program for socially deficient children, you should rely on supports available from the various settings you can access. Settings also vary according to who is in them, what tasks are required, and what levels of supervision and assistance are present. Each of these becomes part of the specific instructional plan.

Developing a Specific Instructional Plan

The instructional plan has several parts. Once the specific function has been determined and the likely setting or settings have been chosen, you will need to determine the set of behaviors (forms) that you want to teach, the particular curricula you want to use, the levels of support you want to start with, the companion skills needed, the criteria of success you are going to use, and the type of data you are going to use to evaluate your instruction.

Set of acceptable behaviors (forms). Problem behavior is very successful. It is almost always reinforced. If we hope to replace this highly generalized behavior we will have to teach the child a set of other behaviors to accomplish the same ends. At this step in the planning process, you will need to identify *specifically* the three or four behaviors you want a child to use to replace the troubled behavior. Saying that you want a child to stop stealing or lying is not good enough. You must be able to say what you want the child to do. Many parents and teachers find this a very difficult task. They can easily identify what they want stopped, but have a much harder time deciding three or four things they want the child to do instead. How can we expect a child, in a situation where he or she has been previously reinforced for unacceptable behavior, to generate several alternatives when we, who are not in that situation, cannot?

There are several reasons a set of behaviors is required instead of one specific skill or script. Good behavior is often ignored. If you teach a child only one behavior to use, it is very likely that behavior will not generate enough reinforcement to compete with the less acceptable behavior. Also, one behavior may not work, and then the child will only have the problem behavior to fall back on. There is a special danger in teaching a specific script like those found in some social skills packages (Hazel, 1982, Goldstein, 1980). These scripts rely on another socially competent and generally reasonable person. Many of the disordered interactions children face are with people who are not competent or reasonable. If the script breaks down, the children are frequently left with no other responses except the problem ones. For all these reasons, a set of responses taught in real life situations is preferrable.

Selecting a curriculum to use. Once a particular set of forms has been selected, you need to develop content for instruction. The easiest place to start is with existing social skills curricula. Several are currently available. *Appendix B* gives a partial list. More detailed descriptions of some are in this monograph. Each of these curricula needs to be adapted to the particular setting you have selected, and you have to add the natural starting cues and ensure that naturally occurring critical effects are produced. Initially, most social skills programs suggest you teach the skill in separate, isolated sessions. You need to adapt these programs so they can be taught in natural environments.

If no curriculum exists for the particular set of forms you want to teach, then you have to design a routine. Routines are task analyses that begin with the natural cue and end when the critical effect is realized. Each step from cue to effect is delineated, and then taught as a whole. Routines combine all the skills required to reach an effect into one instructional technique. It is not uncommon to have several developmental skill areas taught in the same routine. Since designing your own routines will be more time consuming than adapting other existing sequences, it is advisable to try to adapt other programs when possible.

Levels of support. When programming for a social skill, it is important to provide the child with enough information and support to respond correctly a majority of the time. Several areas should be considered before finalizing the instructional plan. Each area has many different levels. Determine which area and level you think is most important for you to control during instruction. For example, if a child is afraid of people, design instructional situations with slowly increasing numbers and personalities of people. On the other hand, if a child does pretty well relating to others, but has difficulty figuring out what to do when, you might want to control the specificity/vagueness level of the situation and disregard the number and types of people. Determine what levels of assistance are required for a child to be successful in each area, and then design a program that integrates these levels of assistance. The areas have been divided into separate parts for clarity, but are considered as a whole in actual practice.

Selected people. When a child tries out a new set of behaviors, you will want to consider with whom they try them. Known people are often better first trials than unknown people. Cooperative people are more likely to respond than obnoxious or disinterested ones. An individual might be easier than a small group. People in identified roles (clerks, teachers, librarians, bus drivers, etc.) are easier than strangers on the street or kids in a group "hanging out." You will often want to group these variables and develop a hierarchy for future instruction. For example, you might decide that Johnny should practice asking for something from someone (Initiates, #6) by going up to the librarian (known, cooperative, in set role, individual). When this is learned successfully, you might send the child to an unknown person, or a person who is less cooperative, or to a group of people, etc. Each experience should be more difficult than the preceding one. The gradations you select depend on the type of problem the child is having. For a student who is fearful of others, a set of guidelines might look like this:

Level 1 Cooperative, individual, known
Level 2 Cooperative, individual, unknown
Level 3 Neutral, individual, known
Level 4 Neutral, individual, unknown
Level 5 Cooperative, group of two, known
Etc.

Selected task. The difficulty of the task can also be varied. You might change the task from easy to hard or from specific to vague, or even from comfortable to squeamish. Again, the particular levels of assistance you choose depend on the function desired and the particular child in question. Consider also changing more than one area at the same time. For example, vary the type and number of people as well as the specificity of the task. An early level might be "Ask the librarian for a paper clip." A more advanced step might be "If you want to play with the other kids, you will have to go over there and ask them."

Selected companion. All of us need help with things. Companions can provide that help. A third way to alter the level of difficulty in a particular situation is to provide various levels of companionship. Companions can be teachers, parents, siblings, peers, other adults, etc. Levels of support can range from the companion doing everything and the child going along for the ride, to the companion just "being there," to the companion not even going at all. Providing assistance through the use of natural companions is a valuable instructional tool.

These areas of assistance can be combined in a three-way matrix to help you decide what levels and types of help to provide before you expect a child to perform. By looking at each area, you can design an instructional situation that has a high probability of success. Success in the natural world gives the child more control over his or her environment, and reduces the likeihood that the problem behavior will recur.

Companion skills. Another component of the instructional program is selecting the appropriate companion skills. Many different activities can be used to teach a social function. Try to select activities the child can do reasonably well. You don't want the child to have to be learning two skills at the same time (e.g. kickball and coping with anger). Choosing more than one activity will help the social skill generalize. As the child gets more proficient with the new social behavior, you can shift to more difficult companion skills. This will teach the child to use the new skills when faced with a difficult task or activity.

Companion activities should be ones that frequently occur in the child's natural environment. Sample the environment to determine which games or activities to use. Peers, siblings and parents are also good sources for activities. If the child you are working with does not frequent many places, then you will have to teach him or her a series of activities required in new environments while systematically introducing him or her to those environments. A companion can be a real help in this area. Having a friend go along to show you the ropes greatly enhances the chance for success.

Criteria for success. Criteria for success seems obvious on the surface. You want the child to do what is expected, and so success becomes just that. In reality, however, criteria for success must begin where the child is currently functioning, and then move slowly toward a final desired level. For example, if you determine that a child has little or no entry skills, you will not want to set your initial criteria for success at "is able to enter a group of peers at a party and act appropriately." This is too high a level to be instructionally useful. Set a level just above where the child is currently functioning. In the example on entering, the first level of success might be that the child "will go near another person," or "will approach another person and acknowledge a comment or greeting." In other words, set educational targets just above the child's current level that you can reward. This may seem like a trivial instruction, one that you would do naturally in academic areas. Unfortunately, when the behavior being taught replaces a problem behavior, most of us expect the child to perform correctly and will reward nothing less than that. We often fail to see that social

Social skills need to be learned in small steps, just like math, reading or science.

skills need to be learned in small steps just like math, reading or science.

Data selection and collection. It is beyond the scope of this chapter to outline specific data collection techniques. White and Haring (1980), Kerr and Nelson (1983), and McDowell, Adamson and Wood (1983) offer examples of various data collection systems. Two points about collecting social data need to be emphasized. First, the data you collect should reflect change in settings that really matter. If you want to teach a child to get along at a football game, measure change at a football game. If you want a child to handle stress more effectively, measure how well he or she does during stressful situations. Any data collected in simulation situations or situations where the presenting problems do not occur is speculation at best. This data does little to predict the effectiveness of your teaching outside the classroom.

Second, data must be collected directly and frequently. If you want to know how well a child maintains a conversation, you need to measure that. Standardized or projective tests that attempt to validate social change are inadequate. You need a direct measure of the particular skill you are teaching to know whether or not you have selected the right routine, given adequate support and arranged the events correctly. If there is no change during instruction, you must alter your instruction. Without data, you will not know when and where these alterations should be made.

The more frequent the data, the better. Ideally, you should measure change every time there is an opportunity to instruct. In many social situations, this is impossible. Try to measure change as often as you can. If you are collecting data only once a month, you run the risk of providing incorrect instruction for 30 days without knowing it. This is very inefficient and wastes valuable time. Most handicapped children are already far behind. They cannot afford to waste any more time.

Instructional Steps

Once the set of forms, teaching context, levels and types of assistance have been chosen, instruction begins. This may seem like an inordinately tedious planning phase. However, if you do not anticipate the types of problems you might incur, you will almost certainly reinforce an inappropriate behavior. Instruction consists of setting up various opportunities to try out newly developed sets of behavior in semi-controlled settings. As each behavior is successfully learned, you gradually fade the levels of support until the child has demonstrated the skill in a wide variety of situations. Since the cues and rewards are contained in each situation, there is no need to teach generalization as a separate step or provide artificial reinforcers. Each situation is hopefully balanced so the cost of responding for the child is slightly less than the expected reward.

A subtle shift in instructional responsibility occurs when you use the routine format to teach social skills in the natural environment. Most behavior problems occur on an unscheduled basis. The teacher is always "on," waiting for the next occurrence. In actual fact the child becomes the teacher, and the teacher becomes the responder. Why? Most behavior programs don't start until the problem behavior occurs. The teacher then responds (or does not respond), the child stops the problem behavior, and thereby rewards the teacher, shaping the teacher's response. In other words, the child sets up the lesson (presents the stimuli and rewards), and the teacher becomes the learner. If the child doesn't stop the problem behavior, then the teacher learns not to use that response, and tries another one.

When teaching in the routine format, the teacher has some control over which type and level of problem difficulty is being produced. The child's ability to perform a particular function has been assessed. A specific set of behaviors have been chosen that will most likely produce a desired result, and the situation where these behaviors are to be tried has been arranged by the teacher. In this way, the teacher can plan when some of the social difficulties occur. This is far superior to waiting until a particular problem occurs naturally. Of course, not all situations can be controlled, and there will be times when the problem behavior will occur. In these cases, you have to rely on any techniques appropriate to deal with the situation. This will, however, be less often than before. Also, you will have a plan for acting that includes some notions of which particular function is operating, what level of difficulty was required and what types of support were present. This enables you to more correctly analyze the problem situation so you can plan a more effective intervention next time. Each time the child errs, the problem behavior is reinforced. You know that the behavior will recur. Thus, you have another chance to plan another strategy. This way, it is possible to gradually increase the difficulty of the situation as the child develops more facility.

Further refinements of present techniques will not solve the problems that face us. We need to develop effective techniques to produce lasting change in a child's problem behavior.

Cautionary Comments

It must be reiterated that this system is experimental. Many of the particular ideas and techniques presented here have roots in empirical studies in many fields. The system's closest analogue is the IMPACT Curriculum (Neel, et al, 1983) that was developed for severely involved children. Other curricula using direct social skills instruction also closely parallel this system. They differ primarily in the areas of instructional context and the number of forms they use. This system is more complex than any others that now exist. As more and more data are collected, there will undoubtedly be many changes. The program is presented here for two reasons. First, so that you, my colleagues, can review it and provide the essential feedback so necessary in program development. Without your help it just remains an idea. My second reason for presenting this system is that I believe further refinements of present techniques will not solve the real problems that face us. We need to develop effective techniques that can produce lasting change in situations that really matter — places where children behave in ways that get them labeled, excluded and sometimes even locked away. Recognizing that the system has some shortcomings should not prevent you from using it. Your modifications and corrections can become the basis for an even better system. Use it with that in mind, and send me the changes you make. Together we may begin to develop a functional approach to teaching behaviorally disordered children.

Appendix A

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Social Skills Environmental Inventory

I. Function: Initiates/Gains Entry - Behavior which allows a person to gain access to interaction: either to initiate an interaction, to begin an event/exchange, or to enter one which is already underway.

	Not Descriptive or True				Very Descriptive or True
1. The student identifies a likely partner and approaches him/her at an appropriate time.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The student greets another student in a friendly manner.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The student willingly offers help when another student(s) indicates he/she is in need of assistance.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The student asks for help when appropriate.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The student asks for permission before acting.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The student requests something /asks to do something politely.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The student initiates conversation with another student(s) in a friendly manner.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The student joins in ongoing activities without unduly disrupting the activity.	1	2	3	4	5
9. The student gives instructions to another student in a friendly, helpful way.	1	2	3	4	5

Overall rating: Check one or more that best describes **typical** performance.

Does not Initiate/Enter	Initiates Contact	Initiates Interaction	Enters Event/ Interaction Underway	Organizes and Initiates Event or Exchange
____	____	____	____	____

II. Function: Maintain Interaction - Behavior which allows the interaction, activity and/or event to continue.

	Not Descriptive or True		Moderately Descriptive or True		Very Descriptive or True
1. When spoken to, the student responds/answers politely.*	1	2	3	4	5
2. The student takes initiative to assist others when they need help.*	1	2	3	4	5
3. The student follows the rules when playing games with others.*	1	2	3	4	5
4. The student invites other students to participate in an activity.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The student interacts with others in an acceptable way in unstructured play situations.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The student says things which are relevant to the topic being discussed.*	1	2	3	4	5
7. The student pays attention when spoken to by another student.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The student convinces others of his/her point of view.	1	2	3	4	5
9. The student cheerfully accepts another person's point of view.	1	2	3	4	5

Overall rating: Check one or more that best describes **typical** performance.

Fail to Acknowledge Initiation/Entry	Acknowledge Initiation	Respond to Initiation	Initiates Further Contact/New Content into Ongoing Interaction	Comment on Interaction and its Value to Partner
____	____	____	____	____

III. Function: Follow Rules/Regulations - Adhere to minimal "rules" of an activity or context, follow routines of given situation; generally implies serial order and/or branching to alternative series to select appropriate response.

	Not Descriptive or True		Moderately Descriptive or True		Very Descriptive or True
1. The student pays attention when spoken to by the teacher.*	1	2	3	4	5
2. When the teacher tells the student to do something, the student does it.*	1	2	3	4	5
3. The student produces work of acceptable quality.*	1	2	3	4	5
4. The student follows the established classroom rules.*	1	2	3	4	5
5. The student accepts consequences for his/her behavior.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The student follows directions given by a peer when appropriate.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The student follows rules when the person in authority is not present.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The student avoids trouble by suggesting an alternate activity or leaving the situation.	1	2	3	4	5

Overall rating: Check one or more that best describes **typical** performance.

Does not Follow Established Rules	Follows Specific Rules in Presence of Authority	Follows Specific Rules Without Supervision	Follows Subtle Unspecified Rules of a Situation	Negotiates and Changes Rules as a Part of a Group
____	____	____	____	____

IV. Function: Reinforce Others/Display Affection - Provide others with feedback which is rewarding to them.

	Not Descriptive or True		Moderately Descriptive or True		Very Descriptive or True
1. The student smiles.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The student says, "Thank you."	1	2	3	4	5
3. The student says something nice about what another student did.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The student says something nice about how another student looks.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The student compliments other students.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The student accepts compliments by smiling or saying, "Thank you."	1	2	3	4	5
7. The student shows that he/she understands the feelings of others by words or actions.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The student consoles others when they have lost a game or made a mistake.	1	2	3	4	5
9. The student expresses affection for others in the right way and at the proper time.	1	2	3	4	5
10. The student receives affection in the right way and at the proper time.	1	2	3	4	5

Overall rating: Check one or more that best describes **typical** performance.

Unresponsive to Actions of Others	Responds to Actions of Others, Type and Amount of Responses Undifferentiated	Responds to Actions of Others, Response Differentiated and Specific to Person and Situation	Description of Reward/Feeling to to Another Separate from a Specific Action/Event	Description of Regard for Individual Separate from Any Actions or Event
____	____	____	____	____

V. Function: Consequate Others/Punish/Extinguish - Provide others with feedback which indicates that their response was inappropriate, unpleasant, etc., and that you want them to stop that behavior.

	Not Descriptive or True		Moderately Descriptive or True		Very Descriptive or True
1. When someone asks the student to do something he/she does not want to do, the student says "no" politely.*	1	2	3	4	5
2. The student expresses anger by telling someone he/she is angry without hurting them.*	1	2	3	4	5
3. The student constructively tells someone what he/she doesn't like about what they did or said.	1	2	3	4	5
4. When someone teases the student, he/she looks away and does not answer or respond.*	1	2	3	4	5
5. When someone tries to hurt/fight with the student, he/she tries to walk away.*	1	2	3	4	5
6. The student considers the other person's point of view and expresses differences directly.	1	2	3	4	5
7. When telling another person that he/she is displeased, the student suggests alternate actions the other person could take.	1	2	3	4	5

Overall rating: Check one or more that best describes **typical** performance.

Little or No Negative Affect	Inconsistent Negative Responses; Purpose is Unclear	Escalates Negative Response to as Less Appropriate Form	Disrupts Chain of Events Early to Minimize Negative Effects	Relays Feelings Regarding a Particular Action Accurately, Directly, and in a Timely Manner
___	___	___	___	___

VI. Function: Attend to Relevant Cues - Behaviors which accompany any social skill, are critical to the particular situation, and are included in any appropriate response.

	Not Descriptive or True		Moderately Descriptive or True		Very Descriptive or True
1. The student is clean and dresses neatly.*	1	2	3	4	5
2. The student stands or sits in a way that indicates a good attitude and promotes continued interaction.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The student maintains eye contact while speaking or when spoken to.*	1	2	3	4	5
4. The student speaks in a moderate tone of voice (neither too loud/too soft).*	1	2	3	4	5
5. The student takes turns.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The student touches others in the right way and at the right time.	1	2	3	4	5

Overall rating: Check one or more that best describes **typical** performance.

Is Unaware of Effect of Relevant Cues on Others	Series Effect of Relevant Cues or Assign Problem to Others	Attends to Some Relevant Cues, But Still Fails to Modify One or More Critical Skills	Uses Relevant Cues in Addressing Others, But is Unable to Shift Cues Within an Interaction	Shifts Behavior According to Perceived Feedback or Response
____	____	____	____	____

VII. Function: Provide Information/Describe - Behavior which shares information, feelings, etc., with others.

	Not Descriptive or True		Moderately Descriptive or True		Very Descriptive or True
1. The student answers questions when asked.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The student shares his/her things with others.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The student introduces him/herself to others.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The student shows an interest in his/her surroundings through verbal comments or physical exploration.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The student confidently introduces a friend to someone else.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The student voluntarily tells the listener about something the listener did not share with the student.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The student appropriately expresses his/her feelings verbally/physically.	1	2	3	4	5

Overall rating: Check one or more that best describes **typical** performance.

No Information Shared	Comment on Present Environment	Comment on Past Environment Shared by Both Parties	Comment on Unshared Environment	Comment on Future/ Fantasy Environments
____	____	____	____	____

VIII. Function: Indicate Preference - Behavior which allows a person to make a choice/decision from among alternatives available or presented by others.

	Not Descriptive or True		Moderately Descriptive or True		Very Descriptive or True
1. When someone asks the student to do something he/she does not want to do, student says "no" politely.	1	2	3	4	5
2. When the student is asked to choose between two or more positive alternatives, he/she states a preference.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The student sets goals.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The student arranges problems by importance.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The student participates in a decision-making process.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The student will make a decision when given the opportunity.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The student will determine the value of a task before committing him/herself to that task.	1	2	3	4	5
8. When someone tries to persuade the student to do something he/she does not want to do, the student says "no" politely.	1	2	3	4	5
9. The student will politely negotiate when original request is denied.	1	2	3	4	5
10. The student stands up for him/herself in a friendly manner.	1	2	3	4	5
11. The student supports the views of others in a positive manner.	1	2	3	4	5
12. The student persuades others in an appropriate way.	1	2	3	4	5

Overall rating: Check one or more that best describes **typical** performance.

No Reference Indicated	States Preference About Talk or Event that is in the Present Environment	States Preference About Talk or Event that is Not in the Present Environment	Plans and Thinks New Activities Based on General Considerations of Preferences, Resources Resources and Values	States Preference When Others Are Trying to Persuade Other Ways
____	____	____	____	____

IX. Function: Cope with Negative Situations - Behavior to generate and implement alternative strategies to continue an interaction or complete a task, or select an alternative interaction when presented with a negative situation or consequence.

	Not Descriptive or True		Moderately Descriptive or True		Very Descriptive or True
1. The student deals with interruptions patiently, and resumes working following the interruption.	1	2	3	4	5
2. When permission has been denied, the student finds an alternative activity.	1	2	3	4	5
3. When bored, the student develops activities to occupy him/herself.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The student seeks help appropriately when something has gone wrong.	1	2	3	4	5
5. When embarrassed, the student redirects the activity or minimizes the embarrassment in some other way.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The student finds other ways to play when he/she asks to join an activity and the answer is "no".*	1	2	3	4	5
7. The student takes appropriate steps to reduce his/her fear.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The student appropriately interprets and evaluates contradictory messages and takes steps to clarify them.	1	2	3	4	5

Overall rating: Check one or more that best describes **typical** performance.

Does Not Respond to Negative Feedback or Consequence	Acknowledges Negative Feedback, but Persists Behavior	Responds to Negative Feedback Inappropriately	Negotiates Interaction Based Upon Feedback to Point of Resolution
____	____	____	____

X. Function: Dealing with Anger - Receives, deflects and resolves angry situations without harming either the receiver or sender.

	Not Descriptive or True		Moderately Descriptive or True		Very Descriptive or True
1. The student receives a complaint by listening carefully and clarifying when necessary.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The student answers a complaint without being defensive.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The student receives an accusation by listening carefully and clarifying when necessary.	1	2	3	4	5
4. When wrong, the student apologizes willingly.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The student takes appropriate steps to defuse a hostile situation if possible.	1	2	3	4	5
6. When someone tries to hurt/fight with the student, he/she tries to walk away.*	1	2	3	4	5

Overall rating: Check one or more that best describes **typical** performance.

Responds to Negative with Generalized Avoidance or Protest	Responds Only When Negative is Present Attempts to Avoid Negative	Responds to Negative and Ceases Behavior No New Activities are Generated	Generates New Action When Presented with a Negative	Rearranges Actions so that Interaction Negative is Reduced or Eliminated
____	____	____	____	____

XI. Function: Leave-Take/Exit - Behavior to terminate or withdraw from an interaction situation, cease participation in an activity when appropriate, desired, etc.

	Not Descriptive or True		Moderately Descriptive or True		Very Descriptive or True
1. The student moves on to the next activity at the conclusion of a task.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The student ends a positive interaction in a friendly way.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The student leaves an uncompleted interaction/task pleasantly.	1	2	3	4	5
4. When an interaction/task is negative and alternate solutions have failed, the student leaves the situation calmly.	1	2	3	4	5

Overall rating: Check one or more that best describes **typical** performance.

Does not Terminate Interaction	Terminates Interaction with Inappropriate Form	Terminates Positive Interaction Appropriately	Terminates Negative Interaction Appropriately
____	____	____	____

XII. Function: Problem Solving - Behavior that is used to generate, evaluate and implement solutions to impasses or obstructions to goals.

	Not Descriptive or True		Moderately Descriptive or True		Very Descriptive or True
1. The student gathers information relevant to his/her tasks/goals.	1	2	3	4	5
2. When solving a problem, the student generates more than one alternative.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The student evaluates more than one alternative before taking action.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The student tries an alternative even if he/she is unsure of the result.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The student re-evaluates alternatives after they have been tried and modifies them appropriately.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The student plans long-term goals.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The student accepts his/her own abilities and limitations.	1	2	3	4	5

Overall rating: Check one or more that best describes **typical** performance.

Does Not Solve Problem	Solicits Others to Solve Problem	Solves Own Problem in Way that is Viewed as Negative by Others or Terminate Interaction	Solves Immediate Problems in Positve Way. Little or no Connection Between Sets of Problems	Solves Problems in Ways that Increase Probability or Developing Positive Outcomes in the Future
____	____	____	____	____

REVIEW THE PREVIOUS SECTIONS AND CIRCLE THE THREE MOST PROBLEM AREAS.

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*Taken from *Social Skills Curriculum: The ACCEPTS Program* by H.M. Walker, S. McConnell, D. Holmes, B. Todis, U. Walker and N. Golden, 1983. Pro-Ed Corp.: Austin, Texas.

Appendix B

Annotated Bibliography of Social Skills Curricula

(1) Simulation Materials

a. Goldstein, A. P.; Sprafkin, R. P.; Gershaw, N. J.; and Klein, P. *Skillstreaming the adolescent*. Champaign, Illinois: Research Press, 1980.
Target population. This program was developed for adolescents, and can be utilized with intermediate level elementary students.
Description of materials. The text provides the educator with 50 lesson plans for 50 social skills, two different homework report forms and instructions for implementing the program.
Format. The teacher selects one of the 50 skills to be taught. Each lesson follows the same format: (1) define and discuss the skill to be learned, (2) distribute skill cards containing the steps for the skill, (3) model appropriate use of the skill, (4) organize role-plays during which students practice the skill, (5) give and invite feedback, (6) provide social reinforcement, and (7) assist students in planning homework assignments.

b. Hazel, J. S., Schumaker, J. B.; Sherman, J. A.; and Sheldon-Wildgen, J. *Asset: A social skills Program for adolescents*. Champaign, Illinois: Research Press, 1982.
Target population. Designed for adolescents grades six through 12, this program functions best when used with groups of five to eight members.
Description of materials. The Asset manual provides the leader with training procedures, nine lesson plans, skill sheets outlining the steps for each skill, home notes, checklists, consent forms and various questionnaires. The program includes nine video taped sequences modeling appropriate and inappropriate social interaction skills. The leader is encouraged to utilize appropriate props for role-plays.
Format. Each session follows the same format: (1) review of home notes, (2) review of previously learned skills, (3) presentation and discussion of positive and negative examples of the target skill on video tape, (4) distribution and examination of skill sheets containing the steps in the target skill, (5) verbal rehearsal, (6) role-play or behavioral rehearsal, (7) feedback, (8) criterion role-plays and (9) home notes assigned.

c. *MARC: Model affective resource curriculum*. Orlando, Florida: Orange County Public Schools.
Target population. This program is designed for adolescents.
Description of materials. The manual provides the teacher with lessons for skills in four areas: self-control, interpersonal problem solving, communications and behavioral interactions.
Format. Each lesson teaches a specific skill or component of a skill. The leader (1) facilitates discussion, (2) models appropriate behavior, (3) assists students in practicing the skill through role-plays, (4) provides feedback, (5) summarizes the lesson and (6) gives a practice assignment. Several lessons involve practicing the skills in natural environments, as well as simulation.

d. Stephens, T. M. *Social skills in the classroom*. Columbus, Ohio: Cedars Press, Inc., 1978.
Target population. This program can be used with student groups of all ages.
Description of materials. The manual provides the educator with instruction in a variety of directive teaching techniques: social modeling, social reinforcement and contingency management. The manual also provides three lesson plans (one for each teaching technique) for each of the 136 skills. The teacher selects the skill to be taught and the teaching technique most applicable to the student's needs.
Format. When teaching a new skill, the educator uses the social modeling strategy: (1) set the stage through discussion, a story, a film, etc., indicating the value of learning the skill, (2) draw out of discussion the specific steps which make up the skill, (3) model correct behavior, (4) set up role-plays in which the students practice correct behavior, and (5) plan and implement reinforcement strategies for the skill throughout the day. The teacher may use social reinforcement or contingency management techniques if needed to continue to maintain the skill once learned.

e. Walker, H. M.; McConnell, S., Holmes; D., Todis, B.; Walker, J.; and Golden, N. *The Walker social skills curriculum: The accepts program*. Austin, Texas: Services for Professional Educators, 1983.
Target population. This program is designed for students at the elementary level, grades one through six.
Description of materials. The manual provides the teacher with guidelines for teaching the curriculum, teaching scripts for 28 skills, and behavior management procedures.
Format. The leader facilitates (1) definition and guided discussion, (2) modeling of positive example, (3) modeling of negative example, (4) role-plays for practice, (5) criterion role-plays to determine if concept was learned and (6) informal contracting. All examples for each skill are available on video tape.

(2) Supplementary activities

a. Ball, G. *Interchange*. San Diego, California: Human Development Training Institute, 1977.
Target population. Separate kits are available for junior high and senior high students.
Description of materials. Each kit is packaged in a storage box for easy access to leader's manual and cards for discussion sessions. The discussion topic cards are organized into approximately 40 units, each with six to 10 discussion lessons outlined.
Format. The leader facilitates a supportive, open-ended style discussion session which focuses on one of the discussion topics.

b. Elardo, P.; and Cooper, M. *Aware: Activities for social development*. Menlo Park, California: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1977.
Target population. This program is designed for elementary aged students.
Description of materials. The handbook provides the teacher with techniques for conducting successful lessons, and sufficient discussion topics, enrichment ideas, games and role-plays to last an entire year.
Format. The leader's objectives are to encourage active participation, lead discussions with enthusiasm, encourage students to expand ideas, ask questions, etc. The teacher utilizes the discussion themes in other parts of the curriculum by using enrichment ideas provided in the handbook during reading, math, social studies, etc.

c. Hoagland, C.; Eyler, S.; and Vacha, E. F. *Classroom learning to attain social skills*. Orcutt, California: Orcutt Union School District, 1981.
Target population. These activities are best suited for primary aged students, grades kindergarten through three.
Description of materials. The handbook provides the educator with an overview description of how to implement supplementary social interaction strategies. Reproducible pages make preparing for activities such as games, graphing and puppetry easy. Detailed descriptions of music, art, movement and group cooperative activities are presented.
Format. The educator uses the handbook lesson plans to provide a wide variety of reinforcing, fun activities designed to encourage positive growth in the general areas of friendship, communication and cooperation.

d. Palomares, U.; and Logan, B. *A curriculum on conflict management*. San Diego, California: Human Development Training Institute, 1975.
Target population. Discussion and activity lessons are designed for elementary aged students, grades one through six. Many could be used with adolescents grades seven through nine as well.
Description of materials. The small handbook provides information about conflict and conflict resolution, discussion topics for conflict management sessions, and descriptions for activities to reinforce learning in the area of conflict management. Activities include creative writing, skits, art, sensory perception, verbal and nonverbal communication, comic strips, puppets and many others.
Format. When presenting topics for discussion, the teacher's objectives are to encourage individual expression, accept every viewpoint, model good listening and keep the discussion open-ended. When presenting experiential activities, the educator concludes the activity with open-ended questions in order to encourage students to express their feelings and share what they have learned.

e. *Project Transition*. Seattle, Washington: Seattle Public Schools, Department of Student Services, 1981.
Target population. This comprehensive program is designed for use by counselors at the senior high level. Use by classroom teachers is encouraged as well.
Description of materials. The materials are organized into six booklets, each one a separate unit. The six content areas are introduction, communication, self-assessment, goal setting/decision-making, career exploration and long-range planning.
Format. The leader follows the manual for each discussion session or activity lesson. Activities include paper-pencil tasks, group tasks, art, etc. Discussion following the activity is directed by the leader.

f. *Putting it Together*. Seattle, Washington: Seattle Public Schools, Department of Student Services, 1978.
Target population. These lessons are designed for elementary aged students, but many could be adapted to secondary grade levels.
Description of materials. The handbook provides descriptions for activities grouped into five general areas: transition and orientation to a new school, classroom climate, self awareness, conflict resolution and career awareness. This handbook is actually a compilation of supplementary activities from other authors. Activities include games, creative writing, brainstorming, discussion, questioning, awards, graphing, stories, journal, vocabulary building and many more.
Format. No specific information is given regarding leader behaviors or instructional techniques. The teacher simply uses the lesson plans in any manner that works well in the ongoing curriculum.

g. Vacha, E. F., McDonald, W. A.; Coburn, J. M.; and Black, H. E. *Improving classroom social climate*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1977.
Target population. These activity lessons are best suited for students in grades four through six.
Description of materials. The text provides information regarding the implementation of a classroom climate program and how to best utilize the book. Teacher's guides and lesson plans are divided into six general areas: attraction, communication, leadership, norms, expectations and cohesion. Activities includes games, puzzles, art, mazes, cooperative tasks, discussion, stories, worksheets, interviews and more.
Format. The goal of the educator is simply to implement lessons from each of the five topic areas throughout the school year in order to provide students an opportunity to interact with one another on a regular basis, and discover together ways to improve social interaction skills.

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